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# THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

CONTINUING "THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER"

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## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

**Detroit as an Example of Scientific School Organization**

A year ago Mr. S. A. Courtis was appointed on recommendation of Superintendent Chadsey to act as efficiency agent in the Detroit schools. This move put Detroit in line with the leading school systems of the country in its emphasis on scientific methods of school management. Mr. Courtis is known to the educational profession as a man of unbounded energy and industry and of achievements in scientific school work which command universal respect. He began a year ago to test and chart the Detroit schools. He used for this purpose the very efficient instrument which he had privately evolved, namely, his widely and very favorably known tests. This vigorous injection of scientific methods into the Detroit school system caused anxiety in several quarters. There are even in these days teachers and principals who prefer the old methods of school inspection which made it less difficult to evade and escape. But Mr. Courtis went his way as an efficiency agent should. He turned on the light where there had been darkness, and he helped those who know how to profit by scientific methods. What is the result? The vigorous schoolman can guess. He was attacked. It was found that he had wasted stationery, so the enemy said. He doubtless must be grafting, because he had the arithmetic material ready before he was employed by the city. He didn't attend to his job.

So the Detroit papers were full of charges and threats and deep rumblings of a coming fall. The fall, however, was, on mature consideration, at least postponed.

It would be easy to sink to the level of those who attacked Mr. Courtis and reply in personal comments. But such is not the purpose of this note. The issue is much broader and larger than the mere question of the integrity and intelligence of the Detroit Board of Education. The country at large is vitally interested in this broad issue. Scientific methods of supervision mean a new attitude on the part of school officials. There will be a transition period when the unscientific will be suspicious. This transition period will be filled with the clamoring of those who realize that scientific methods are the foes of lethargy and incompetency. But the outcome of this movement is even now clear. The Detroit school system will be dominated from this time on by scientific methods. It makes very little difference to education in general whether the domination by scientific methods is accomplished in one way or the other. It will come because there is no other method of conducting a really modern school system.

The following item, quoted from the Detroit Free Press, gives an account of the matter which speaks for itself:

> Fires that have been smouldering for a year under the seat occupied by Professor Stuart A. Courtis, efficiency expert of the public schools, burst into flames Thursday at the regular meeting of the Board of Education.
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> For a time they threatened to burn up Professor Courtis' position and badly scar several members of the board. President McMichael, in imitation of some of the younger generation over whose studies he holds sway, threatened to pick up his toys and go home, and this finally ended the flare-up.
>
> It started when the textbook committee, in a majority report signed by Inspectors Neinas, Reinhold, and Sherman, recommended that the bids submitted by Professor Courtis for printing material for his efficiency work be rejected and his system of arithmetic tests be discontinued. Inspectors Harms and Condon, in a minority report, wanted the professor's recommendations adopted.
>
> Inspectors Neinas and Reinhold charged Courtis with padding the printing specifications and also with tricking the committee by submitting bids for the printing before the "copy" for it was ready.
>
> The board then voted on the divided report and twelve inspectors had voted to throw out the Courtis system when Inspectors Mumford and Komrof-

sky rose and declared the board did not know what it was doing. Mumford charged the opponents of Courtis with trying to "put something across."

Inspector Hely then jumped into the ring and attempted to settle the matter by a motion that the matter be referred back to the committee. This was followed by an amendment by Inspector Mumford, giving the committee power to award the printing contracts and providing for the immediate installation of the Courtis system. It carried.

In the wrangling that preceded the final action, which members of the board say is likely to be only temporary, Superintendent Chadsey was called upon to defend Professor Courtis. This he did at length, characterizing the professor as a splendid educator.

Inspector Reinhold wanted to know what had been done with $2,000 that was appropriated for the professor's experiments and research work. Inspector Neinas wanted to know why Professor Courtis had his offices in the Normal School instead of at the board rooms where he could be watched. He also charged the teacher with having had only two years in college.

Other inspectors charged that there was waste in Professor Courtis' department, as his statistical cards had been found in a janitor's ash can and some of his electrical apparatus was lying unkept on the floor of a room in the Normal School.

**New York School Budget**

The school budget of the largest school system in the United States is always an impressive example of the importance of public education in American cities. The Board of Education of New York City has prepared a budget for 1916 aggregating $43,894,524. This is more than $4,000,000 above the figures of last year. The comptroller of the city has felt himself moved to criticize the management of schools and to indicate certain economies which he thinks should be effected. He would reduce the number of teachers by 10 per cent, reduce salaries, eliminate extra pay for services rendered by persons employed on annual salaries, and cut down the elementary school to seven grades. The attitude of the Board of Education is reflected in the following item clipped from the *New York Globe:*

Action was deferred by the Board of Education yesterday upon the school budget estimate for 1916 to give the members time to study it before it is finally adopted for presentation to the Board of Estimate. Chairman Greene of the finance committee, in presenting the estimate, explained briefly the increases included and the reasons therefor.

An attempt was made to have the committee empowered to give further consideration to the recommendations of the inspector of ungraded classes for visiting teachers. The resolution was defeated.

In the effort to keep the budget down to the lowest possible sum, the committees of the board generally have refused to sanction any new activities or extensions of old. Practically the entire increase is due to the increase in school registration.

Provision has not been made for any more kindergarten teachers or for additional teachers of modern languages in the elementary schools. The requests of the inspector of ungraded classes were limited to two assistant inspectors, two physicians, and thirty teachers. Additional visiting teachers have been eliminated. It was also decided not to include a request for evening sessions at the High School of Commerce, for summer sessions of high schools, or for additional teachers of English in high schools. Other sweeping curtailments were made in high schools. The new salary schedule for attendance officers also was eliminated. No increase will be requested for after-school athletic centers.

**Seven-Year School Not an Economy**

The suggestion made by Comptroller Prendergast that the elementary course be reduced to seven years deserves more than mere mention. There can be very little doubt that this particular suggestion will be more and more commonly made in the coming years. The eighth grade is not especially useful as it is now conducted and should be reorganized. On the other hand, Mr. Prendergast is in error in assuming that this move will make for a reduction in the cost of schools. An elimination of the eighth grade means the development of junior high schools and more students in these upper schools.

**The Gary Plan as a Plan for Expanded Schools**

In this connection it is illuminating to follow the development of Superintendent Wirt's work in New York City. There can be very little doubt that one of the strong motives which impelled Mayor Mitchel and the other city officials when they brought Superintendent Wirt to New York was the hope that sweeping economies might be made possible in the school budget. The rumor had reached New York, as it has every city, that at Gary twice or three times as many children can be put into a school as is now commonly done. Longer days can be provided at less money in the belief of some school boards. It is, therefore, most encouraging to find in Superintendent Wirt's report to the board the following statement:

I wish to state very clearly in closing that I am not specially interested in running school systems cheaply. My desire is to procure greater opportunities

for children. As to the disposition of the economies that may be secured through a work-study-and-play school organization, I do not wish to advise, but I hope that as far as possible such economies will result in better school facilities for the children. New York City at present is not spending a greater proportionate amount of its budget for public education than the average city.

So significant is the question of economy in an interpretation of the so-called Gary system that a further quotation from Superintendent Wirt's New York report may be given in full.

**The Plan as a Whole Not Cheap**

I have made a survey of New York City schools accommodating approximately two hundred and fifty thousand children. I believe that an extension of the work-study-and-play school program to all schools of the city will make it possible to provide a six-hour school day in place of five, and additional facilities for play, auditorium, and shopwork, and at the same time reduce the number of teachers employed 10 per cent. This does not necessarily mean that the budget for teachers' salaries may be decreased 10 per cent. Additional teachers must be provided for the increase of register, and additional moneys must be provided for the annual increase in the salaries of the teachers now employed. Also it would be possible to employ the same number of teachers that would be employed under your traditional system of reorganization, by reducing the size of classes, which would, no doubt, increase the efficiency of the work in the schools. It would also be possible to use the economy in the teaching funds for more extensive education and wider use in the plants.

To complete the reorganization of all the schools in New York City for work-study-and-play schools, approximately $2.50 per pupil would have to be provided for structural changes and additional equipment, which would require the provision of $2,000,000 in the budget of 1916. Approximately an additional $2,000,000 would be required for play space and $2,000,000 more for annexes to the present schools. The reorganization of all schools would release approximately one-fourth of the present school plants, the value of which can be turned back to the Sinking Fund Commission for sale or other use. There would also be a saving of overhead charges for operation and maintenance of these abandoned schools.

By an expenditure of $2,000,000 for structural changes and equipment and $4,000,000 for land, I believe that all of the children in New York City can be given a six-hour school day with the superior facilities of the work-study-and-play school program.

To determine the relative economy of the work-study-and-play school program compared with the traditional school, it would be necessary to estimate the cost of providing for all the children the regular five-hour single system school, the cost of operating and maintaining the great number of additional school plants, and the relative opportunities of children in the two types of schools.

This statement puts the case so clearly and pointedly that it should be read wherever the Gary system has been misunderstood. School buildings must be of the modern type to accommodate the elaborate program proposed by Superintendent Wirt. If a city has old schools, they must be reconstructed. Furthermore, in recommending the abandoning of certain school sites, Superintendent Wirt recommends a move that is most rational, but in no wise a unique economy.

The real point of the matter is that readjustments result in better schools, not cheaper schools. The equilibrium is thus restored. Gary has been thought of as a home of cheap schools. This is a radical misunderstanding. The Gary plan is not a cheap plan. It is an elaborate plan, calling for much readjustment in buildings, in programs, and in the equipment of teachers. For an enlargement of school plans there will be unbounded enthusiasm; there has been skepticism about plans for a cheap system.

**Corporation Schools**

The *Pittsburgh Gazette* in a recent article discusses the convention which is to be held in that city in 1916 from May 30 to June 2 by representatives of seventy corporation schools. These corporation schools are conducted by various business organizations for the better training of employees. Three years ago the first convention of the National Association of Corporation Schools of America was held in Dayton, Ohio, in connection with the National Cash Register works. A second convention was held in Worcester, Massachusetts, and a third in Buffalo, New York, this past summer. The purposes of these schools and the outline of the program of the coming meeting are presented in the following statements taken from the *Pittsburgh Gazette:*

> Every phase of the industrial school training for corporations is to be taken up and especially the importance of establishing a relationship with general public educational systems. As explained by the president of the organization, at this time the corporation schools for apprentices and tradesmen are based, first, necessarily on primary education of the apprentice who leaves school very young, then gradually working him into a trade best suited to him in the plants of the corporation. It is the ultimate hope that every boy will be compelled to attend public or high school until he is aged 16, and then the corporation

schools will fall to their natural task of adjusting the boy's school education to the trade or calling that he is best suited for in its mills.

The corporation schools, too, are designed to check or eliminate lost motion in the development of new workmen in the mills along skilled lines, by studying the young boy when he first enters its employ. It has been common to try a boy out in some one department. If he fails to make good he is dismissed and another is tried. It is believed now that a boy may be a failure in one department of the huge mill, but would be a prize winner in another, and the dismissing of a trial applicant for another is a serious loss of motion that could be saved by having a guiding mind watching the applicant and studying what he is best suited for.

This is the chief development of the corporation schools of the past few years. It is also seeking to broaden out the salesman and the men of the more technical fields. In other words it is beginning to be realized that to properly fit a man to be of the greatest value to himself and his employing company he must be educated by that company and built up to the highest standards of preparedness for growth and development of the trade.

But besides these more or less technical subjects of the coming convention there is a series of other topics such as safety and health; allied institutions, employment plans, vocational guidance, retail salesmanship, and subjects that would fit into the whole scheme of educational work for the apprentices.

The idea for corporation schools for developing the best in the young employees is comparatively new, but it has had extensive study, and experience has come rapidly and simultaneously all over the country. It was discovered in the study of these facts that this corporation school idea sprang up in a dozen localities almost at the same time. It was only when the association was proposed that each became aware that others were doing the same work. Then began the general association organization to secure mutual benefits of conference in continuing the work.

**Methods of Interesting Communities in Schools**

The Department of Public Instruction of the state of New Jersey has taken two steps which ought to be productive during the coming year of a closer relationship between the community and the school. Commissioner Kendall sent to the clergy and the people of the state of New Jersey a document recommending that Sunday, September 12, be observed as Educational Sunday throughout the state. This document makes a strong appeal for a public recognition of the importance of the schools and of their work. At the same time the commissioner addressed a circular letter to the county superintendents and supervising principals of the schools emphasizing the

importance of their taking the initiative in securing the co-operation of parents. The following paragraphs, quoted from the two documents above described, gives some notion of the character of the movement which the department has elaborated:

I therefore earnestly recommend that Sunday, September 12, be observed as Educational Sunday, and cordially invite the clergy to unite with their congregations in services appropriate to the greatness of the cause. On such an occasion the worth of education might be set forth, the need of co-operation of home, school, and church emphasized, and the attention of parents called to their own responsibility. Much as the schools are doing and much more as they might do to build up strong, robust character, the responsibility of parents in the training of their own children should be emphasized. The home is a more fundamental institution than the school, great as the school is.

No school system will succeed without the hearty co-operation of the fathers and mothers of the children. This co-operation often is not secured because no opportunity is given the patrons to participate. Parents should be interested in nothing so much as in the education of their children and they will not withhold even the best things from them once they are persuaded that these things make for their welfare. It is hoped, therefore, that superintendents and principals will encourage the formation of parent-teachers' associations or similar organizations in every school district. In districts where this is not feasible parents should be called together, at least occasionally, through the school year in order that the aims and purposes of the school may be explained to them. Conferences between parents and teachers should be encouraged and supervisors should make it possible for each teacher to know the parents of her pupils. It is unreasonable to expect the best results when parents and teachers do not know and therefore often do not understand each other.

**Questions for Self-Examination**

The Department of Educational Investigation and Measurement of the Boston public schools has issued a four-page leaflet suggesting questions which teachers should ask themselves for purposes of self-examination. It is not intended that these questions shall in any wise be reported to the central office, but each teacher is asked to go over the whole list for the purpose of stimulating himself or herself to improve in the classroom work. It is not possible to quote the four pages of questions. Some samples, however, may be given. The following, taken from the various sections, indicate the scope of the whole series:

I. PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

2. Am I careful to keep myself in as good physical health as possible?

5. Is my voice well modulated?

7. How do I know that my use of English is worthy of the mother tongue?

II. ABILITY AS A TEACHER

1. *Management of the room.*—

1. Is the ventilation in my room as good as I can make it?

2. Is the temperature satisfactory?

3. Are the seats properly adjusted to the pupils?

2. *Management of the class—discipline.*—

3. What evidences are there that my pupils are acquiring habits of good physical bearing?

4. Do I find more difficulty in handling the class at dismissals than during recitation periods?

3. *Teaching the lesson.*—

2. What method of teaching do I use most often:

*a*) The conversational, in which the pupils both answer and ask questions?

*b*) The quiz, in which the pupils only answer the questions which I ask them?

*c*) The lecture, in which the pupils merely receive what is given them?

6. To what extent in each lesson do I help the pupils to prepare the next lesson:

*a*) By a good ending of recitation?

*b*) By a judicious assignment?

*c*) By stating the aim?

*d*) By anticipating their difficulties?

*e*) By suggestions or directions?

11. Are my questions simple, direct, and logical, or are they rambling, ambiguous, and suggestive of the answer?

13. What means do I adopt to insure a judicious distribution of my questions among the pupils?

14. How many different pupils of my class do I give a chance to recite in each recitation? In a week?

**Junior High School**

This *Journal* has aimed to keep its readers informed with regard to the progress of the movement for junior high schools. Superintendents and principals are constantly asking for programs showing the course of study and the arrangement of work in such institutions. The *Journal* will be glad to print such programs in full so far as space can be provided for these. The following is an example of a course

of study which has introduced radical modifications in the eighth grade and even in the seventh grade.

COURSE OF STUDY FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

ADRIAN, MICHIGAN

| Seventh Grade | Recitations per Week | Credits per Year | Eighth Grade | Recitations per Week | Credits per Year | Ninth Grade | Recitations per Week | Credits per Year |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| READING AND SPELLING | 5 | 10 | READING AND SPELLING | 5 | 10 | ENGLISH | 5 | 10 |
| ARITHMETIC | 5 | 10 | ARITHMETIC | 5 | 10 | CITIZENSHIP | 5 | 10 |
| GEOGRAPHY | 3 | 6 | HISTORY | 5 | 10 | Commercial Arithmetic | 5 | 10 |
| DOMESTIC SCIENCE | 2 | 2 | Domestic Science | 5 | 10 | Domestic Science | 5 | 10 |
| MANUAL TRAINING | 2 | 2 | Manual Training | 5 | 10 | Manual Training | 5 | 10 |
| GRAMMAR | 4 | 8 | Grammar | 5 | 10 | | | |
| PHYSIOLOGY | 1 | 2 | Physiology | 5 | 10 | General Science | 5 | 10 |
| DRAWING | 2 | 2 | Drawing | 2 | 2 | Mechanical Drawing | 5 | 10 |
| Music | 2 | 2 | Music | 2 | 2 | Music | 2 | 2 |
| Physical Training | | | Latin | 5 | 10 | Latin | 5 | 10 |
| | | | German | 5 | 10 | German | 5 | 10 |
| | | | Physical Training | | | Physical Training | | |

One hundred and twenty credits are necessary to complete the junior high school. All subjects in capitals and small capitals are required of every pupil. Those in small letters are elective. No pupil may carry more than forty-two credits work without special permission. Such permission will be granted only to those pupils whose excellence in scholarship has been assured by their previous work. Elective subjects should be chosen with great care. Each pupil must confine his work to the grade to which he belongs. A discussion follows which, it is hoped, will assist parents and pupils in making elections.

Music in each year will consist, mainly, of chorus work which will include enough of theory to enable those taking it to read music.

Pupils electing Latin or German in the eighth year will receive instruction in grammar in connection with those subjects. It will be well for pupils who expect to go to college to begin one of the languages and continue it through their high-school course.

Domestic science and manual training afford the most practical training of any subject in the entire course. The pupil who pursues this work through the junior high school will receive a training that will serve him well throughout life.

Physiology in the eighth grade is recommended to pupils who do not care for the languages.

The general science in the ninth grade is a practical course including work in each of the natural sciences and, in addition to the valuable information and training afforded, will enable one to choose intelligently the work he wishes to continue farther in the sciences.

Commercial arithmetic should be taken by all who expect to take bookkeeping in the senior high school.

Mechanical drawing is intended for all boys who expect to do mechanical or industrial work.

# EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

Students of educational problems are under great obligations to Professor Hanus and the World Book Company for making easily accessible the results of the New York school survey and subsequent surveys in other cities.[1] The huge tomes which were issued in New York were too bulky for common use and the reports of Portland and other cities have in general been printed primarily for local consumption in relatively small editions. The present editions of these reports are in convenient book form and the edition will be large enough to supply the increasing demand.

It is hardly in place to describe in detail the contents of each report. They have been reviewed in earlier issues of this *Journal*. The interesting fact which deserves comment on the appearance of these volumes is that this type of material is being widely read by superintendents and principals and even by teachers. These reports stand as the best expressions of the present-day effort to make educational science available in practical school work. The student of education may devise a test in arithmetic, but it is not until he has had an opportunity to take a great school system in hand that his test can demonstrate what it is really worth. Furthermore, the superintendent, busy with his daily routine, will not be aroused by an abstract test; he will, on the other hand, give attention when the test is shown to be a useful device in evaluating real school work. So it comes about that the scientific student and the practical school officer find common ground in the survey and a common interest in the results issuing from the survey.

This type of report is sure to replace very rapidly the purely theoretical kind of book which used to be offered to readers who

[1] *The Portland Survey*. By Ellwood P. Cubberley. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1915. Pp. 441.

*Education for Industrial Workers*. By Herman Schneider. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1915. Pp. 98.

*Problems in Elementary School Administration*. By Frank P. Bachman. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1915. Pp. 274.

were interested in education. There is a vitality and vividness about this empirical material collected in a real school which makes it more worth reading than was the theoretical book, however masterful.

Furthermore, these books can be used to give real point to teachers' meetings and supervisors' conferences. The time was when a superintendent hardly knew how to organize any systematic course of reading for his principals. The teachers were sometimes dragged through a book on some remote topic, but the principal escaped because there was nothing relating to his problem. Here are books relating directly to the problems of the principals. Perhaps we are on the eve of a rejuvenation of the office of principal. Certainly, up to this time, that office, along with the office of county superintendent, has been one of the weak spots in American school organization. Now a superintendent can with assurance bring his principals together and set them at work on books that are of the highest value. The result of such study ought to be more surveys. This second generation of surveys will be self-conducted investigations made by officers of the school system itself.

Mention ought to be made in this connection of that other publishing agency which is also the agency which made one of the notable surveys, namely the Russell Sage Foundation. The report of Springfield, Illinois, was prepared by Dr. Ayres and published by the Foundation. The circulation of the Springfield report has been very large.

Mention should also be made of the Baltimore report published by the Bureau of Education. Taken together, these reports make a very impressive beginning of a new kind of educational literature.

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The most recent survey report which has appeared is that of Professor Cubberley and his co-workers, dealing with the schools of Salt Lake City.[1] This report consists of 324 pages. It is made up of four divisions: the first deals with organization and administration, the second with the work of the schools, the third with

[1] Published by the Board of Education, Salt Lake City, September, 1915.

buildings and health, and the fourth with finance. In the appendix Professor Cubberley has drafted a new law which he recommends for the reorganization of the system.

The first section gives an account of the unique conditions which exist in Salt Lake City. The geographical location of the city, its varied industries, and the special social problems which grow out of the character of its population are discussed at some length. Salt Lake City has a much larger proportion of children than other cities of its size. The maintenance of its schools is, therefore, complicated by a much larger demand than is common. The per capita wealth, however, is relatively very high, and it would seem that the city can well afford to conduct schools of a high grade. The amount expended for teachers is relatively very low; the experience of the teachers seems to be small; and their education is for the most part that which they have gained from local institutions.

The usual difficulties also appear in matters of organization. The line of division between the functions of the board of education and those of the superintendent is not sharply drawn. The superintendent finds himself responsible for many phases of the school work over which he has no explicit authority. For example, financial matters are not under his immediate supervision, and yet the work of the schools is so dependent upon financial support that Professor Cubberley and his colleagues make an earnest plea for a reorganization which will bring the superintendent into a position of general control of the disbursement of funds as well as of the appointment of teachers and the planning of courses of study. In regard to buildings also the superintendent should have a larger authority, according to the findings of the surveyors. The recommendation is made that there be a complete reorganization of the board and a complete restatement of the superintendent's position in the schools. The conclusion here reached is not different from that which has been advocated in some of the earlier surveys in which Professor Cubberley has participated, especially the Portland survey.

The second division of the report, which deals with school work, was prepared in part by Superintendent Van Sickle. The general

conclusion which is reached in this section is that the schools are doing a very high grade of work in the fundamental subjects. Superintendent Van Sickle is outspoken in his praise of much of the work which he saw. A second part of this section is a chapter on tests made by Mr. Sears of the Stanford department. The tests show that the children stand higher in the fundamental subjects than do the children in other cities. In view of the criticisms made of the teachers, this is a surprising result. The explanation offered in the report is that the schools are very well supervised by the principals. Evidently the opinion of the surveyors is that the principals have succeeded in making unusually effective use of a corps of teachers which is not very promising in its qualifications.

The last chapter, on school work, which deals with the progress of children furnishes another surprise, since it seems to show that there is a very high retardation. The number of children who are set down as over-age is abnormally large. That this should be the case at the same time that pupils make high percentages on all of the tests on fundamental subjects would seem to indicate that only children who can pass the tests have been allowed to advance through the grades. It is sometimes a mistake of good teachers that they throw the responsibility for school work very largely on the children, thereby securing a high percentage on the part of those who get through, but eliminating or retarding more largely than they ought children of mediocre ability. The survey does not give any definite solution of the problem which thus arises.

Indeed, the survey does not seem to face squarely the fundamental difficulty which appears where it is found that instruction is good. but the teaching corps is open to criticism and retardation is very high. A mere discovery of some of these facts, without a co-ordination of the facts discovered, seems to leave the school system without any very clear indication of the direction in which it should go. Furthermore, it is to be said that the report has utilized some of the devices known to the scientific student of education in a formal fashion. For example, in measuring over-age, the survey has utilized for purposes of comparison a body of results which referred only to the grades, whereas the figures in the Salt Lake report included the high schools as well. The

results with which comparison is made dealt with whole age groups and whole grades, while the Salt Lake report deals with half-age groups and half-grades. In the Salt Lake report 216 children in I*a* grade are counted as normal who would have been counted as under-age in the material with which Salt Lake is compared. This and similar discrepancies between the earlier material and the material in the Salt Lake report modify very radically the position which Salt Lake ought to take in the comparative table on retardation. In some of the tests made of classroom work the teachers did the grading, as, for example, in the case of handwriting. There is very little justification for this procedure, except economy in effort for the surveyors. Common experience has shown that it is not easy for any large body of people to use these testing devices, and the amount of experience that can be assumed on the part of teachers is not adequate to justify the use of the results in a survey. Again, the use of the composition scale for purposes of a general survey is certainly open to the criticism that this scale has by no means shown itself to be a useful instrument in the testing of school work. In short, there is very grave danger that these instruments of scientific investigation will be used in a formal and perfunctory fashion. Where the problem is as clear as in the Salt Lake report, in which very successful scores on the one hand are set over against all of the external indications that the school system needs reorganization on the other, it is by no means adequate merely to go through the tests. The tests should be tried until the real solution of the problem is clearly exhibited.

The difficulty which is here pointed out is emphasized if one turns directly to the fourth division of the report where, by an analysis of Salt Lake City, Professor Cubberley shows that the schools deserve much more support than they now have. It will probably be very difficult for the untechnical citizen of Salt Lake City to understand why a school which is producing excellent results at the present time should be in need of a very great increase in its expenditures. The contention that the teachers are underpaid and that the school system is therefore jeopardized may be entirely legitimate, but the force of that contention is much weakened by the findings on classroom work.

The third section, dealing with buildings and health conditions, points out a number of improvements which should be made in the construction of buildings and also indicates steps which should be taken in segregating defective children from others.

The report states in its general introduction that the survey was begun on May 10 and finished on May 28. As one reads the various sections, he feels that this statement explains in a measure the difficulties to which attention has been called in the foregoing paragraphs. A large amount of material was indeed collected during the three weeks of the survey. This material opens up a large number of problems to be considered by the school system, but the report makes on one the impression of undue haste and lack of completeness.

It is certainly to be desired that surveys of school systems solve in a very definite way, if necessary by patient research, the fundamental questions that arise in each school system. Salt Lake City, like every other city, has its virtues and defects. It is the business of the survey to make clear the methods of curing the defects and utilizing more fully the advantages in the system. The present report serves these purposes in part, but raises a number of questions that are by no means answered in the present investigation.

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The study of hygiene has in recent years received a powerful impulse. The popular press has made a specialty of health departments and departments on recreation. The doctors and nurses have come into schools and have made them the centers of a vigorous movement for the prevention of disease and the improvement of individual health. School buildings are rapidly being made over at enormous outlay to conform to modern demands for suitable physical conditions under which children are to live and work. There is, therefore, no need of a plea in behalf of any book which presents the facts about this movement or suggests methods of improving schools.

Professor Rapeer has brought together in a single thick volume[1] thirty-three papers on different aspects of the health problem by

[1] *Educational Hygiene.* Edited by Louis W. Rapeer. New York: Scribner, 1915. Pp. 650.

twenty-eight specialists. These chapters range from the discussion of heredity, through treatments of the problems of the elementary school, up to the problems of college physical education and practical hygiene. There is much discussion of play and recreation in general. There are accounts of practical systems of administration and of experiments in school feeding and open-air rooms.

The most impressive single characteristic of the book as a whole is its emphasis on the training side. How shall we train workers for the field; how shall pupils in the higher and lower institutions be made intelligent on problems of health; how shall teachers be equipped?—these are the problems most discussed.

There are many examples of successful work illustrated by half-tones, showing the details referred to in the text.

The book is very stimulating and will be helpful to the general student of education. Like all composite books to which many writers have contributed, this volume lacks something of the coherency of a well-organized treatise, and its appeal is not as direct as would be that of a book addressed to the classroom teacher or to the nurse or some other officer whose duties are specific. The book is rather a general text, useful in the broad suggestion which it gives to interested readers.

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A tempting field for the educational writer is opened by the present-day demand that the untrained elementary teacher and the student in training for elementary-school positions study the broad general problems of the classroom and its work. Any book which bears witness to a growing recognition of this demand is to be welcomed. Two such books[1] have recently appeared.

Professor Kennedy has laid greatest stress on the language subjects. He has expressed with emphasis a psychological theory on which he bases many of his recommendations.

> Every selection, or piece of writing of any kind, should cause to arise in the mind of the reader a series of pictures, a real panorama;—and if some of the words, phrases, or sentences in that writing cause no pictures to arise in the

[1] *Fundamentals in Methods.* By Joseph Kennedy. New York: Macmillan, 1915. Pp. 326.

*Everyday Pedagogy.* By Lillian I. Lincoln. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. Pp. 310.

mind of the reader there are so many blanks, blotches, or daubs on the panoramic picture as a whole [p. 14].

Again and again the necessity of picturing is reiterated.

This is not the place for a lengthy discussion of psychological matters, and Professor Kennedy's emphasis on language work in general is so appropriate in an age which has gone psychologically mad about instincts and other primitive forms of conscious activities that one hesitates to dispute anything that he says. But that language should be cultivated for the purpose of calling up pictures is so contrary to adult experience and to the findings of the most productive psychological thinking, that one must enter a protest against the emphasis which the book gives to that theory.

The book has much information about methods and devices and will doubtless serve to introduce many a learner to the problems of teaching.

Miss Lincoln's book deals, as does that of Professor Kennedy, with the problems of the classroom. Her experience with teachers in training has given her many suggestions that will be helpful.

One misses in both books a kind of material that would be very helpful to students of education, namely, concrete, specific examples. It is, of course, very difficult in a brief text which must cover so broad a field to bring in much of this illustrative material, but there will doubtless be an increasing demand for such examples even in the elementary books.

Finally, we note one characteristic common to both books. They discuss problems other than those related to the subjects of instruction. Thus, Miss Lincoln writes on the school building and its grounds, on the opening day, on the physical comfort of the child, and on play and discipline. All these chapters show that the problem of the teacher is coming to be recognized as a broad problem, calling not alone for knowledge of subjects, but also for knowledge of a technical sort on matters of school organization and child psychology.

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History has come into the school program, especially in the upper grades and in the high school, in very notable degree in recent years. Difficulty has arisen because of the abundant

material at hand. It has become increasingly evident that the selection of those phases of the subject best suited to the schools has opened up more questions than the special teachers of history have been able to answer. Furthermore, very little demand was made at first for special consideration of the educational problems presented by the history course. It was assumed that any teacher who had read history could teach it. The result is that today history is one of the unorganized, not to say disorganized, fields of instruction in the schools.

There have been several books which have dealt with the problems of history teaching and numerous reports of committees. A new book[1] is now added to the list. This book discusses the questions that are before schools, criticizes what has been recommended by others, describes typical courses, lists materials, and suggests devices. The more careful estimate of the value of the book will have to be left to those who are technically trained in the field of history. In the meantime, it may not be amiss to offer the comments of a general student of education who would fain see the historians solve their problems.

The present book seems to such a student valuable because it gives a great deal of information about devices that teachers are using in history courses. This information does not seem to be definite in many cases and there is no adequate account of the results of using the devices. The book is in this sense a kind of theory as to how one might teach history.

Furthermore, the book contains a great deal of information about the way in which history is taught in Europe and the way in which it was taught in earlier days in American schools. Here again the evaluation of these practices does not seem to be based on any known facts.

Let us put the criticism in the form of questions which the young and inexperienced teacher of history would raise after absorbing as much of this information as a single reading of the book would give. What is one to do in the midst of these many possibilities? Is not the lack of finality in this book typical of the whole history

[1] *Teaching of History.* By Henry Johnson. New York: Macmillan, 1915. Pp. 496.

situation? When will the history teachers realize that they must do something more than lay out programs and discuss programs? They must go where programs of a definite type have been tried and they must study results. They must find out how much children really absorb under one plan of work or the other. Until they do this, they will be full of devices and equally full of doubts and disagreements.

Perhaps the trouble is due to the historian's lack of interest in science. It is the scientist who sees most clearly the importance of studying reactions and results. It is on the scientific side that the study of education has of late made its greatest advances. The history of education has been slow to change, slow to interest itself in anything but broad theoretical discussions. Professor Johnson's book makes on the non-historian something of the impression that a perusal of a typical history of education leaves. The fund of fact is rich; the breadth of suggestion is wide; the finality of decision is absent.

# CLASSROOM METHODS AND DEVICES

## Dramatization and Current Events

Dramatization, when used by teachers who realize its vital importance and its actual psychological basis, can be made to serve most of the subjects in the curriculum. There is a tendency to believe that dramatization can be made productive only when it deals with historical materials or purely imaginary situations. Why look always for ideals to the heroes of history, or to those created by imagination, when leaders who stand for big things in the present-day world may equally well be imitated through the medium of words and actions?

With this thought in mind a number of exercises were planned for intermediate-grade children, such as to lead them to visualize current events naturally and vividly and to put them into dramatic form. The class had been given no training of this kind. There had been no attempt toward enrichment in ideals, or toward the expression of the deeper feelings which are embodied in literature through dramatic reproduction. It seemed best, therefore, to begin by using recent world happenings which have a marked emphasis on the emotional side. Accordingly, the teacher chose for the first lesson the finding of Scott, the hero of the South Pole.

The children were to place themselves on the spot at the time of the rescue and were to express the emotions aroused in the rescue party when they read the part of Scott's diary which told of hardships, disappointments, and love of humanity. To read the words of the diary even once, without a vivid personal appreciation of the wonderful meaning behind them, would be to lose forever their deepest significance. For that reason the first expression was to be in writing. On the morning of the experiment the words at the end of Scott's diary were put on the board, and there arose a discussion as to the discovery of the South Pole, Amundsen's success, and Scott's vain efforts and death. When interest in the subject was at a high pitch the children were told to choose the

moment at which the rescue party came, then to decide and write what the different men would do and say at such a tragic and intense moment, ending their compositions by using Scott's own words. While they had talked much "about it and about," no hint of what the men might say had been made by anyone before writing. The following, written by a girl and selected for brevity, was one result.

FINDING OF SCOTT'S PARTY

SCENE: Inside of tent not far from South Pole.

CAST: Scott, Wilson, Bowers, Wright, Nelson, Gran (few others).

(*Men uncover heads when entering*)

NELSON (*steps inside tent, sees men in sleeping postures, turns pale at sight of smile on* Bowers' *face*): God! He is still smiling, it almost gave me hope.

WRIGHT (*comes in, goes toward* Scott, *touches his face, shivers slightly*): England's bravest men!

GRAN (*comes in, followed by others, sees* Bowers, *coughs to hide his emotion*): How splendid to die smiling! And no word to tell us of their brave deeds.

WRIGHT (*looks thoughtful*): Captain Scott must have been the last to pass away, for the others are securely wrapped in their sleeping bags, which he, of course, did, not being in his own sleeping bag. (*Moves* Scott's *hand, sees diary.*) What is this? Read, Nelson, while I search for other word.

NELSON (*takes diary, turns to first page*).

GRAN (*impatiently*): The last, man, read the last!

NELSON (*turns pale, reads*): "We took risks; we knew we took them. Things have come out against us, and therefore we have no cause for complaint, but bow to the will of Providence, determining to do our best to the last. But if we have been willing to give up our lives to this enterprise, which is for the glory of our country, I appeal to our countrymen to see that those who depend on us are properly cared for. Had we lived, I should have had a tale to tell of hardihood, endurance, and courage of my companions which would have stirred the heart of every Englishman. These rough notes and our dead bodies must tell the tale, but surely, surely, a great, rich country like ours will see that those who are dependent on us are properly provided for.—R. SCOTT."

WRIGHT: How sad! And Amundsen was there before him.

GRAN (*emotionally*): To seek, to strive, to find, and not to yield.

(*Curtain*)

The class read aloud their papers, but in most cases the reading was so much weaker than the writing as to prove that the lofty ideas and intense feeling expressed in writing could not yet find adequate oral expression. These plays were therefore not acted.

The study of facial expression was illuminating while the writing proceeded, especially that of one lad, the wag and terror of the building, who was absorbed and lifted out of himself as he wrote. The girl who wrote, "Heavens, they are dead!" gave the only evidence of convention intercepting strong feeling.

Our next venture was an oral one, using as the subject "With Mr. Edison the Morning after the Fire." On the day preceding the lesson the following assignment was made, and there were placed in the room magazines and encyclopedias containing necessary information:

1. Find out all you can about Edison as a boy and as a man.
2. What are some of the inventions he has made?

The lesson started with a talk about the fire at the West Orange factories on the night of December 9, the teacher asking at last how many would like to go to the fire the morning after. Of course, being live Americans they were all eager to attend, which they did by going to the front of the room, where they placed, in imagination, the ruins. One youth then said, "May I make a suggestion? We ought to have a fire line to keep the people back." The result was a quick trip to the cloakroom to find a jump-rope to serve for a check to the excited throng. They were then asked what they would naturally talk about at such a time, to which question there was but one answer: "Mr. Edison." Each one had his little store of information which came forth from the heart. Often two groups of children started to talk at once, but they soon learned the art of waiting until they could be heard, even the timid ones piping up at slack intervals.

FIRST CITIZEN: My, there was sure some fire around here last night.

SECOND C.: Yes, and it certainly will cost, I can tell you. Somebody's out a whole lot of money.

THIRD C.: Well, Mr. Edison won't be discouraged. I'll bet he'll start again.

FOURTH C.: Say, Mr. Edison is an old man now, but just think what he's done. Why, my grandfather said when Edison was a young boy, only ten, he had a chemical something or other in his cellar.

THIRD C.: Laboratory.

FOURTH C.: Oh, yes! Laboratory. And when he was fifteen he published a newspaper on the train.

FIRST C.: But that's nothing compared to what he's invented.

Then followed a dissertation on his inventions, with surprising technical knowledge on the part of the girls, who would catch up started sentences and finish them just as excited folks do in real life.

FIFTH C.: Why, just think, you can sit in your own parlor and hear the greatest singers in the world and all because Mr. Edison invented the phonograph in 1877.

SIXTH C.: That's nothing. Think what a lot of use he's been to the detectives. Why, man, in 1905 he invented the dictagraph. It takes down everything you say.

When the talk on inventions grew repetitive, the teacher suggested that Edison himself come along. The boy chosen was serious looking, but he understood on accepting the part that he must smile, which he did.

SEVENTH C. (*cheerfully*): Why, good morning, Mr. Edison, how are you?"
(*Great hand-shaking among the friends of West Orange*)

MR. E.: I'm well, I thank you.

FIFTH C.: Pretty big fire, Mr. Edison, isn't it?

MR. E. (*pointing into space*): There's a mighty expensive experiment but a good one.

SIXTH C.: Well, I reckon you'll be building that up again, say in a month or so, won't you?

MR. E.: There'll be a mobilization around here this morning if that stuff cools off enough, and when those buildings go up again, they go up fireproof.

FIRST C.: My, that's quick work, Mr. Edison.

MR. E.: I'm sixty-seven years old, but I'm none too old to take a fresh start. Nobody is ever too old to take a fresh start.

FOURTH C.: Gee, Mr. Edison, you must be one of them things you call a optimist, ain't you?

(Though there was much slang these were the only mistakes in grammar. It was the wag aforementioned who actually grieved over his errors as if they had been his first, and they were his first so far as real consciousness went, and he said, "Oh, Miss H, I made a mistake in grammar!")

EIGHTH C.: Did you save anything in your office?

NINTH C.: How about that picture of you I saw hanging over your desk?

MR. E.: Gone, too, I suppose.

FIRST C.: Look coming!

Down the street with all the impetus the narrow schoolroom would allow came a boy waving something which he put into the hands of the American wizard.

BOY: We found this just now.

Edison backed away from the crowd, looking at a charred picture in his hand while the impatient mob strained the rope and the policemen grew angry. Taking a pencil from his pocket, the great man wrote something on the picture, smiled, put it in the eager hands stretched out to his, said goodbye, and left. Then there was a great scramble to read, when one citizen cried, "Stand back, won't you, and I'll tell you what it says!" He held in the air a picture cut from the *American Magazine*, revealing the smiling face of Edison framed by an irregular rim of charred paper, a reproduction of the photograph made memorable by the optimistic epigram scribbled upon it by the inventor, and read aloud, "Never Touched Me." The crowd laughed and someone called, "Three cheers for Mr. Edison!" at which fifty lusty throats gave out three wall-shaking cries, as hats were tossed and handkerchiefs waved.

It is surprising how, when once in the spirit of the game, every magazine and newspaper calls out and suggests a play. Such a heading as "President Gets Right to Act as Newsboy" immediately catches the eye. Words like the following, coming out of the mouths of our citizens with accompanying feeling and understanding of the situation, are bound to make an indelible impression: "The right road is the straight road, and it is the only road that will carry any man where he would care to go, because I am sure you will feel as I do, that it isn't worth while to go anywhere if you cannot go with honor and self-respect. My message is, God bless you and guide you." This was part of a letter which President Wilson wrote to a few scrappy little newsboys in Baltimore, who responded by sending over to the White House a committee of newsies to thank Mr. Wilson in person. One of the boys, nicknamed "Germany," who was spokesman and very much embarrassed, tried to tell the President how they appreciated his letter, while "Giggles" presented the Executive with a badge entitling him to sell papers in their city. The President graciously responded and assured the boys if he ever got hard up he would use the badge

to make some money. It is a great thing for our young and our grown countrymen to speak the same language. Such a situation makes a play worth while.

Again, last summer, with its terrible European upheaval, made it possible to bring out feeling for home and all that it means. This, too, was acted after an assignment which tried to make the young folks glean all needed facts.

1. What are the names of some of the pictures and statuary in the Louvre?
2. How did people get home last summer after the announcement of war?
3. What are some of the things you see on entering New York harbor?

The aim of the lesson was to arouse the feeling for family, home, and country and to enable the students to express that feeling. There were two acts. One was in the Louvre Gallery in Paris where all were happy and gay, talking about pictures and artists, until someone entered breathlessly to say that war was declared, when there was a sudden transition and all were longing to get home. The second was on board ship, about three weeks later, with everybody tired and anxious, when suddenly came the shout, "Land!" and gradually they steamed into sight of the harbor, remarking fondly on the things they saw. Without warning an American flag appeared. What was the reaction? How did they say, "Home, home at last!" No one had to tell the travelers to cling to their vowels, no one had to beg for resonance of voice. It was as it is with the kindergarten child who cries, the first day of school, "I want to go ho-o-o-me." They were ready to read Scott's "Love of Country" and to salute the flag. Reference to this experience will revivify the emotions if at any later exercise the reading becomes dead and meaningless.

Difficulties will arise in this work, as in all live teaching. Discipline of the pin-dropping, clock-ticking kind will be impossible; but is such discipline a real training for life of the common type where one must learn to work in the midst of legitimate noise? The first dramatic results will be discouraging, but one must begin with the pupils where they are, and be content at first with meager gains if only these gains are healthful and constant. The object of this everyday work is not the entertainment of an audience by a few selected for special talent, but power for all. The wonderful

part is that you have let loose in the school a force that increases each time it is used, until finally the teacher has only the regulating and not the suggesting function. The start is the difficult part, for it cannot be forced; but we are sure that the instinct is inherent in each one of the children and will grow if properly nourished. It came to the point in one school, when a group of girls were supposed to run in and ask Joan of Arc to come out to play, that a youth said, "May we boys be the girls?" The teacher looked up quickly to see what it meant and saw it was a serious question. The boys played the girls' parts, dancing in as daintily in their heavy shoes as any young maidens might do. They had reached the point where they were curious to experience the new. Most of the school entertainments show off the too expressive child, but when we play, not for show, but for education, the same play is worked over and over with different children in each part until all have opportunities for development. It was good for a dainty little girl to be the first angel in "Abou Ben Adhem," but it was far better for the tough little boy across the aisle to ask and to be allowed to try that part when something of the sleeping angel in his nature had been aroused. The result of such teaching cannot be measured, for he who expresses himself but little in comparison with others with more native ability and self-confidence is making gains not always visible in the schoolroom.

Difficulties there are, but everything worth while presents as many. A feeling in the teacher's heart that dramatization of present-day life is proper for all of our boys and girls causes her to have a glowing attitude toward youth, for she is helping to conserve the joy of life. This is the greatest gift youth has to offer life—creative force. And dramatization points the way.

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# ROMAN HISTORY IN THE FOURTH GRADE

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The curriculum of the fourth grade of the University Elementary School includes Greek history in the first semester and Roman history in the second. One thirty-minute period each day is given to this study. This does not take into account time devoted to composition work in these subjects, which is done in the regular English periods.

It is acknowledged that the general aim in teaching history to the child is to broaden the range of his experience, to make him understand and appreciate the actions of his fellow-men—to make him more sympathetic toward the different races of the world. If this aim is to be carried out, there must be presented in the grades not only a study of American history, but a study of those nations out of whose civilization the institutions of America have grown. A complete understanding of our own nation cannot be gained and appreciated without a study of ancient Greece, Rome, and the Middle Ages.

Roman history involves a discussion of social and political struggles, which as such cannot be taught to fourth-grade children. They are by no means prepared to receive Roman history as taught to a high-school class. But they are able to receive more or less definite suggestions and impressions by means of pictures, stories, and illustrative material. This phase of history has the advantage of being to a great extent stories of the exploits of heroic men, and the attention of the children can be held almost the whole time to the lives of these particular heroes. However, it is most important that the impressions gained by the children should be in chronological order. The history of Rome is a unit and is of much more interest to the children when they are able to grasp this unity—that is, to see the relation between the big events and to link them together. An attempt was made by the writer to teach Roman

history as a series of biographies, touching the lives of the great leaders, but she was forced to explain to the children the causes of certain events; they were not willing to pass from one topic to another without knowing the "why" for the transition. So, while the emphasis should be placed upon the personalities of the heroes, as Hannibal, Caesar, etc., an attempt should be made to keep before the minds of the pupils the real sequence of events and to show the relation between the successive periods of the history.

Since children in the fourth or fifth grade are so attracted by the heroic and the dramatic, what could be more suitable as literature than the history of the Romans, so rich in legends and stories that rank among the best which can be given to children?

These are the purposes for teaching Roman history as worked out in the University Elementary School:

To see the growth of Roman power from the small Latin settlement on the Palatine to the seven-hilled city on the Tiber that became the controlling power of Latium, of Italy, and finally of the whole Mediterranean world.

To see the progress of civilization as shown in the life of the Romans compared to that which existed among the Greeks.

To learn something of the customs and ideals of these people who gradually became able to govern the countries of the Mediterranean better than they had ever been governed before.

To see how the Romans learned from others, the Etruscans, the Carthaginians, the Greeks, and the countries of the East and how they assimilated the best in the customs of these peoples.

To see what Rome has contributed to civilization: her language, her literature, her buildings, and her manner of ruling other people. In short, how Rome lived, how she conquered, how she ruled, and how she civilized.

The type lesson which follows shows one method which was used very successfully in presenting Roman history to a class of 4A children.

### TYPE STUDY IN ROMAN HISTORY

(Sand-Table Work in Roman History. Growth of Rome. Showing Use of Sand-Table. Roman history runs through the second semester of the fourth grade.)

In Roman history, the emphasis was laid first on a study of Italy itself, to obtain a background for a full understanding and appreciation of the people that lived and ruled there many centuries ago.

For this topic a study was made of the shape and position of Italy, its climate, and its surface. The children compared the shape of Italy to that of Greece, the study of which they had finished the preceding semester; noticed that Italy was larger in size, and in outline long and narrow, in contrast to Greece. They also noticed the regular coastline of Italy as compared with the irregularity of the coast of Greece. No better form of description could be found for the shape than the one of the "boot extending into the Mediterranean Sea, its toe to the south, its heel to the east," and Sicily the football which the boot was about to kick. We found that it was about as far north on the world's surface as Chicago, and the class instantly volunteered the information that Italy was much warmer than Chicago because olives, figs, and oranges grew there, and in Chicago it is too cold for such fruits. Then the climate was explained: that the warm winds from the hot deserts of Africa blow over the Mediterranean Sea and give Italy a mild climate.

In taking up the surface another feature of the climate was brought out in the location of the lofty Alps Mountains which protect the plains of the Po River from the cold winds so that in this broad valley are raised grains and tropical fruits. Running through the center of the peninsula are the Apennines, not so high as the Alps, and extending far to the eastern coast, thus giving a broad coastal plain to the western part through which flowed the river Tiber. The difference in the eastern and western slope of Italy was discussed; the steep, rocky coast on the east, and the gradual descent on the west, with the fertile valley of the Tiber between the mountains and the sea. In this connection the contrast was brought out between the people of the plains and those living in the hills, the difference in their habits and manner of living.

After all these points had been brought out with the aid of a physical map of Italy, the outline of the country was drawn free-hand with the large wall map before the children; then, to get a

more exact conception, they traced it several times from a smaller map.

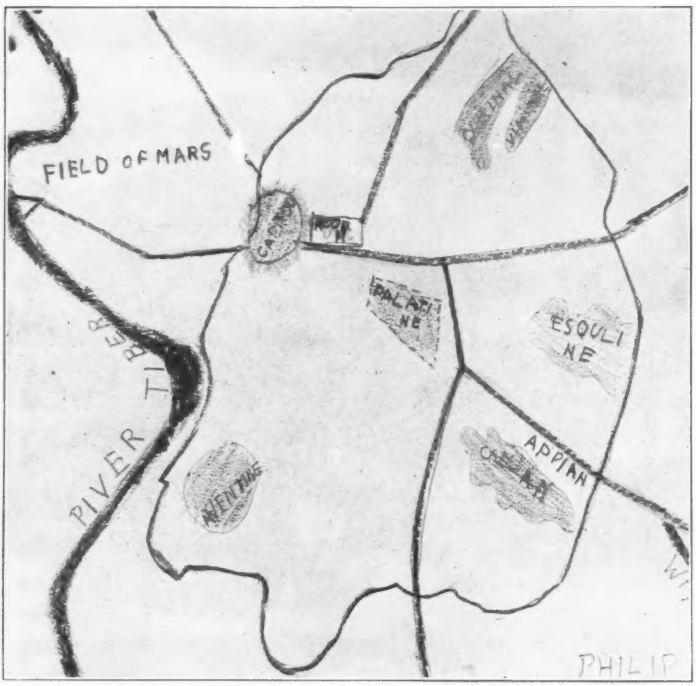
Then they were ready to model the country in the large sand pan, which is seven by five feet. All members of the class took part, and when the model was finished, Etruria was located in the northern part, Latium in the south, and Rome on the south bank of the Tiber, with Alba Longa near by. Now we were ready to tell the story of the founding of Rome, following Aeneas on his perilous journey from Troy to Sicily, then to Carthage and thence back to Sicily, and from there to Latium in Italy.

Now that we had a picture of Italy as a whole, with Rome located in relation to the rest of the surrounding country, we were prepared to take up more in detail the appearance of the city which was to be the center of our study in Roman history. So the next step was to build the seven Hills and the Tiber. As a preparation for this a map of Rome was drawn on the blackboard, showing the most important parts which existed at the time of the kingdom and the early republic. The children observed the seven hills in the relation of their position to the Tiber River and to the first and second walls of Rome, and they learned their names incidentally, through this observation. Several of the class had been in Rome, consequently they were able to add a great deal to the subject-matter, both as to information and also as to interest. Before the representation was made on the sand-table, each child in the room made a drawing of the plan of Rome indicating these things:

| | |
|---|---|
| The Seven Hills | Field of Mars |
| The Tiber River | Great Circus |
| First and Second Wall | Temple of Janus |
| The Sacred Way | Temple of Vesta |

After the maps were completed work was begun on the sand-table. However, all the things mentioned were not constructed at once, but were put on in the order of their appearance in history. For instance, at first nothing was shown but the hills and the river. With this much the class could tell the legends of the kingdom: Romulus, the war with the Sabines, the capture of their women, and the fight between the Horatii and the Curiatii. The Temple of Janus and the Temple of Vesta were built; no special emphasis

was placed on these buildings; they were mentioned simply as explanations of the customs and religion of the early kingdom. The Temple to Jupiter, Juno, and Minerva was placed on the Capitoline Hill, and the Circus Maximus, where games were held, was laid out. The mode of warfare was discussed in connection with the




PLAN OF ROME DRAWN BY ONE OF THE CLASS IN PREPARATION FOR THE SAND-TABLE REPRESENTATION

Campus Martius. Here the division of the troops and the meeting of the assembly of the centuries were talked about. Then the first wall, which had been built around the Palatine Hill, was superseded by the second wall, which extended entirely around the city. For this the children made bricks of clay $1' \times 1\frac{1}{2}'$ and placed them together to form a continuous wall.

Taking up the republic under the conquest of Italy, the legend of Horatius was the next incident pictured on the sand-table. For this, a rude bridge was made by one of the class to be used as the center of the stirring scene. The Tiber was banked in on either side with clay and filled with water so that there would actually be an opportunity for Horatius "to plunge headlong into the tide." Janiculum, on the farther side, was fortified and we were very fortunate to have some tiny Roman soldiers presented to us by one of the pupils, to make the picture even more real. They were lined up, part on the Janiculum side for Lars Porsena's men and part on the other side to defend Rome. The study of the poem was given in the English periods, and was read to the children not only once but several times. Every child who told the story came to the sand-table and showed the different places spoken of, as he did so. The climax was the reciting of six or seven stanzas of the poem: no stated requirements were made—if any child learned more than another, it was because he wanted to.

These topics were not depicted on the sand-table: the war with Pyrrhus, the Punic wars, and the eastern conquests. They were developed by story and reading, and several art periods were given to illustrating certain events in connection with these wars, as: the elephants of Pyrrhus, Hannibal crossing the Rhone, and Hannibal crossing the Alps.

As history unfolded itself and the settlement on the Tiber grew to be the Mistress of the World, the children needed to know more of the buildings and public works which were the result of that far-reaching civilization. So when we had reached the middle of the period of the republic in our study, we destroyed the scene of the Seven Hills on the sand-table and began to build the neighborhood of the Forum. The whole space in the pan was devoted to the Capitoline and the Palatine Hills and to the construction of some of the monumental buildings and the other structures whose ruins still remain as evidences of Rome's greatness and power. These were studied and constructed from the point of view of the relation which they bore to history at the time of their erection. They were a means of developing in the minds of the children an appreciation of the stages of growth and progress of the Roman people. Each

building represented to the child that particular bit of history included in its erection. After reading, discussing, and writing about a certain temple, the drawing of it was taken up in the art periods. Many pictures were brought from the Museum and used both in the historical study and in the working out of the drawings. The modeling of the structure was the climax of the study and was done in the construction time, which consisted of two one-hour

CHILDREN AT WORK ON THE MODEL OF ROME

periods a week. Usually a group of children worked on one building; for instance, in building the Pantheon, two children made the pillars, another the roof, and still another the foundation. Such a thing as an arch, or a column, could be made by one child. Each structure was worked out and placed on the sand-table in the order in which they were actually built; in this way the children gained a knowledge of the use and growth of the Roman Forum and its relation to the life of the people. Just as in the early kingdom the Forum meant to the children the meeting-place of the Latins and Sabines, typifying a state in its early development, so in the empire it meant a place of imposing statues, buildings, and triumphal

arches, a significant story clinging to each in the mind of the child. The Colosseum meant not merely a clay structure, but an understanding of its use, a vast arena in which forty thousand spectators could gather and watch the combats of thousands of men and wild beasts.

The construction of the Appian Way followed a discussion of Roman roads, and the road was built by the children in the true Roman fashion. Over it they depicted many triumphal processions. Hannibal was represented approaching the Roman city, threatening it with destruction. Another time they showed the triumph of Marius, bringing Jugurtha back in chains, and in this instance it was not enough to imagine the doomed prisoner from Numidia, but it was necessary to represent the conquered one at the head of the triumphal procession by means of a small doll bound in fetters which had formerly served as a key chain. A few days later he was thrown, chain and all, into the Mamartine Dungeon, which was a large hole dug in the side of the Capitoline Hill.

After a study of life in the empire, which included, among other topics, the Roman house of that age, two houses were constructed and placed on the Palatine Hill and a long aqueduct brought water from the mountains to the hill so that they could be supplied with water.

These were the buildings included in the neighborhood of the forum:

Temples:
- Basilica Julia
- Capitol
- Vesta
- Castor and Pollux
- Augustus

Amphitheaters:
- Circus Maximus
- Colosseum

Aqueduct

Houses

Appian Way and other roads

Arches:
- Constantine
- Titus

Columns:
- Trajan
- Marcus Aurelius

Through this sand-table work, an effort was made to bring the history of Rome more concretely before the minds of the children, to make them see, in these buildings which they had modeled in their crude way, something of Rome's struggles, her losses, and her successes, and of her religion and manner of living.

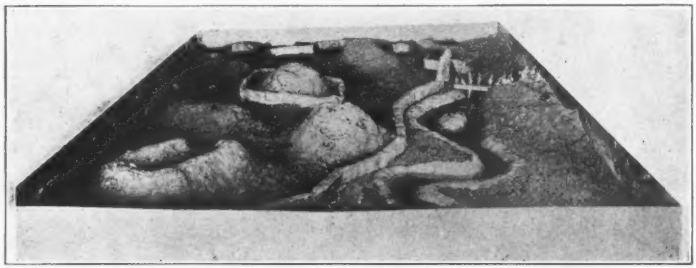
4 A HISTORY

A U. E. S.

*Horatius*

After Tarquin had been driven from Rome he got very angry and asked Lars Porsena of Clusium to fight Rome so he could get back his throne.

So Lars Porsena got his mighty army host together and marched on Rome.



SAND-TABLE WORK SHOWING HORATIUS AT THE BRIDGE

Soon the Romans saw one little village after another burst into flames. They had fortified Janiculum, just on the other side of the Tiber, but the Romans knew that if they could hold the bridge they would win. When the foes' army was just going to march across the bridge a brave man named Horatius stepped forth and said that he and two others would hold the bridge while the other Romans hewed down the bridge. But just as the bridge was going to fall the two men that were with Horatius now jumped into the river and swam across. When he reached shore as a reward he was given as much land as two strong oxen could plow from morn till night. Once the people put up a statue of him which stands there till this day.

4 A HISTORY

B U. E. S.

*The Capitol*

Another important temple we built in our sand pan was the Capitol. After Tarquinius Priscus's enemies had been subdued he set to work to improve the city and in honor of Jupiter, Minerva and Juno he built a splendid temple called the Capitol. While the workmen were working on it they had to

remove a few altars that had already been put in but Tarquinius would not let them move the altar of the god of youth because he said, if they did they would not keep young and strong any more and also he would not let them move the altar of the God of Boundaries because he said, their boundaries would keep going backwards if they did, so the two altars were left standing. When the temple was finished it was the most beautiful temple Rome had ever had. It burnt down three times but was always rebuilt again. One of these

CAPITOL

times when it was rebuilt it was so pretty that I will have to describe it to you. The gates were of brass covered with gold while the inside was of marble and was decorated with gold and silver ornaments. It was situated on the south west side of the Capitoline hill and covered eight acres of ground. The children that modeled the Capitol in the 4 A grade are Payson Wild, Helen Farwell, Roger White and Harry Harkins.

4 A HISTORY

C U. E. S.

*Sand-Table Work in Roman History*

This picture shows the second scene which we made in our sand-table, the City of the Seven Hills. The hills are the Palatine, Aventine, Capitoline, Caelian, Quirinal, Esquilne and the Viminal. Then we made the Tiber River

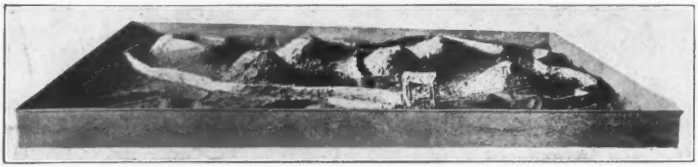
and put clay on the banks to keep the water from soaking in the sand. One of the boys made a bridge for the sand-table. Roger brought some soldiers, so we made Horatius at the bridge. Harry made a gate to put in the front of the bridge. Across the bridge we made Janiculum. We made the first wall which was around the Palatine Hill and the second wall which surrounded the city.

4 A History

D U. E. S.

*Italy*

Italy is a peninsula in the southern part of Europe, and extends into the Mediterranean Sea. It is shaped like a boot. The heel points east and the toe south.



Sand-Table Work Showing: the Seven Hills of Rome; the First and Second Walls of Rome

Italy is about as far north as Chicago, but the Alps protect it from the cold northern winds and as it is in the southern part of Europe it has a mild climate.

There are some mountains in Italy called the Appennines that extend through the center of the peninsula, and when they get to the ankle they follow the western shore till they reach the end of the toe. Then they continue in an island near the toe called Sicily.

The largest river in Italy is the river Po. Its plains are the most fertile in all Italy. Grapes, olives, oranges, lemons, figs, and almonds are raised here, and the mulberry-tree is cultivated for the support of the silk worm.

The river Tiber is the next largest river. About twenty miles up the Tiber is Rome the city we are going to study about in our Roman history.

4 A History

E U. E. S.

*The Founding of Rome*

Long ago there was a King of a town called Alba Longa, but his brother who was a wicked man and wanted to be king himself took him off the throne, and locked his daughter up in prison where twin sons were born to her. When

her uncle heard this he became jealous and ordered them to be drowned in the river, Tiber. At that time the river Tiber was overflowing and the servant was

RELIEF MAP OF ITALY IN SAND

afraid to go near so he left them in shallow water and they drifted down the river where they caught in some vines on the south side of the river. After awhile the twin babies began to cry and a mother wolf who had lost her cubs

came and nursed them. But as time wore on a shepherd who had seen the wolf going and coming, soon found the boys and named them Romulus and Remus. It wasn't long before they heard how their father had been taken off the throne. So one day they set out to put their father back on the throne. But the people of Alba Longa could not live inside its walls so Romulus and Remus made a city on the Palatine hill. But the people did not know what to call the city, so one day Romulus stood on one hill and Remus on another hill, after awhile Remus saw six vultures and Romulus saw twelve vultures and the city was called Rome after Romulus.

SAND-TABLE WORK SHOWING: COLOSSEUM; APPIAN WAY; ARCH OF CONSTANTINE; A ROMAN TRIUMPH; A ROMAN HOUSE

F

*The Appian Way*

At school we made the Appian Way in clay on our sand-table. The real Appian Way extended from same to Capua. The man who ordered this road to be built was named Appius Claudius, so it was named for him. There were many other roads leading out of Rome. To make a Roman Road first the people brought pieces of stone and clay. This formed the bed of the road. Then upon this were laid large blocks of solid rock. These roads were so smooth that they looked as though they were built of one continuous stone. The object of having roads was that if any city was to rebel they could march their soldiers to the place quickly. The Appian Way was the most famous of all these roads. Across it came the terrible Hannibal with his army. St. Paul was also brought over this road to be tried before Nero. Queen Zenobia bound in Golden chains was brought over the Appian Way as a Roman captive and Jugurthu was also brought over this road.

4 A History

G U. E. S.

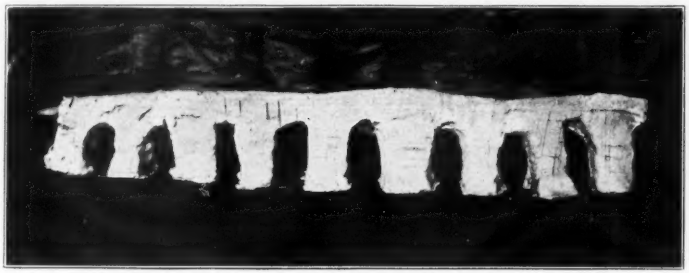
*The Arch of Constantine*

When Constantine became emperor at the death of his father Constantius, Maxentius disputed his claim to the empire. Constantine set out to meet Maxentius who ruled Italy, and had a large and powerful army.

At noon the day before the battle Constantine and his army saw a cross in the sky and some Greek words which meant, "By this sign conqueror."

Constantine made a vow that if he won the battle he would become a Christian. He had a new standard made which had on it the cross and the inscription he had seen in the sky. He carried this before him in battle.

The two armies met near Rome and Constantine won the battle. In memory of this victory he had a fine arch built which is still standing, and is called the Arch of Constantine.



Roman Aqueduct

It has four large pillars and three archways. The archway in the middle is very large, and there is a smaller one on each side. There are some words in Latin over the large archway, and beautiful figures carved over the smaller ones and at the top and base of the four large pillars. The arch of Constantine is very beautiful and is one of the largest in Rome.

4 A History

H U. E. S.

*The Roman Colosseum*

The Roman Colosseum is an oval shaped building covering six acres of ground. It was built by Vespasian, Titus and Domitian.

There are many stairs leading to different sections. At the head of the Arena is a platform where the Emperor sat, just above him sat the citizens. There was also a section for the soldiers.

The Colosseum was used mostly for gladiatorial combats.

4 A History

I U. E. S.

*A Roman Aqueduct*

In the olden days the Romans could not get pure water in Rome. Many of their bravest men had died from a disease which impure water had given them. Sometimes the Romans could not even send their men out to fight. So they thought of a way to get water. Eight miles away were the Alps. They knew that the snow on them would melt. So they decided to build aqueducts to bring the water to them. At first they did not dare to build them above ground for fear their enemies would turn the stream aside. But after they had subdued their foes they built them above ground. Some of these aqueducts are still standing. They are made of stone. At school George and I made one. We made it out of clay for a Roman village.

# THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS[1]

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY
Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University,
Stanford University, Cal.

*A new profession.*—As we look back over the three-quarters of a century during which the office of superintendent of city schools has been in existence, a few names stand out with particular prominence as those of men who have laid—often against tremendous obstacles, often in conflict and contest to the end of their careers, and often by the sacrifice of much that men hold dear—the foundation principles of the new work to which they gave the best years of their lives. Doing a pioneer work, and often misunderstood and unappreciated by those with whom they labored, these men patiently blazed a trail for others to follow. As a recent writer has put it, "each traveled the trail at his own gait, with rations and blanket only, and never knowing, though caring much, where each year's tramping would end."[2] Out of this three-quarters of a century of trial, conflict, discussion, and experimentation, a profession of school supervision is at last being evolved.

School supervision represents a new profession, and one which in time will play a very important part in the development of American life. In pecuniary,[3] social, professional, and personal rewards it ranks with the other learned professions, while the call for city school superintendents of the right type is today greater than the call for lawyers, doctors, or ministers. The opportunities offered in this new profession to men of strong character, broad sympathies, high purposes, fine culture, courage, exact training, and executive skill, who are willing to take the time and spend the energy necessary to prepare themselves for large service, are not

[1] This article forms chap. x in the author's forthcoming book, *Public School Administration*, to be issued in the early winter, and is reproduced here by permission of the publishers, Houghton Mifflin Company, of Boston.

[2] Gove, *The Trail of the City Superintendent*, p. 215.

[3] The following average salaries of superintendents of schools in the cities of different size in the United States for 1912–13 are taken from the recent report on teachers' salaries, prepared by the National Education Association and issued by the

excelled in any of the professions, learned or otherwise, today. No profession offers such large personal rewards, for the opportunity of living one's life in molding other lives, and in helping to improve materially the intellectual tone and moral character of a community, offers a personal reward that makes a peculiarly strong appeal to certain fine types of men and women.

*Importance of this official.*—Potentially, at least, the most important officer in the employ of the people of any municipality today is the person who directs the organization and administration of its school system, and who supervises the instruction given therein. Actually, the condition frequently is otherwise, but where the superintendent of schools is of the type he should be, he[1] renders a service the importance of which, in terms of character and future citizenship, is not approached by that of any other official in the employ of a municipality. In popular estimation, the mayor, the president of the city council, the chief of police, or the head of the fire department may occupy more important positions, but the far-reaching character of the services of a capable and energetic superintendent of schools transcend in importance any of these.

What the schools are in organization, administration, instruction, spirit, and purpose, and the position which they occupy in the eyes of the community, they are largely as the result of the actions, labors, manliness, courage, clear vision, and common-sense of the superintendent of schools. About him and his work the schools revolve, and it is largely he who makes or mars the system. What he is, the schools, under proper administrative conditions, become; what he is not, they often plainly show.

United States Bureau of Education (*Bulletin No. 16*, 1914). The maximum salary is higher now in some of the groups.

| Size of City | Salary of Superintendent | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Lowest | Highest | Average |
| 5,000 to 10,000 inhabitants | $ 400 | $ 3,600 | $1,915 |
| 10,000 to 25,000 inhabitants | 1,200 | 4,250 | 2,774 |
| 25,000 to 50,000 inhabitants | 2,000 | 5,000 | 3,019 |
| 50,000 to 100,000 inhabitants | 2,400 | 5,000 | 3,582 |
| 100,000 to 250,000 inhabitants | 3,300 | 7,500 | 4,422 |
| 250,000 or more inhabitants | 4,000 | 10,000 | 7,178 |

[1] Here, as elsewhere throughout this article, the masculine form is used, and for the simple reason that nearly all of our city superintendents are men. What is said, however, is equally applicable to women.

*Large duties of the office.*—His is the central office in the school system, up to which and down from which authority, direction, and inspiration flow. He is the organizer and director of the work of the schools in all of their different phases, and the representative of the schools and all for which the schools stand before the people of the community. He is the executive officer of the school board, and also its eyes, and ears, and brains. He is the supervisor of the instruction in the schools, and also the leader, adviser, inspirer, and friend of the teachers, and between them and the board of education he must, at times, interpose as an arbiter. Amid all of his various duties, however, the interests of the children in the schools must be his chief care, and the larger educational interests of the community as a whole he must constantly keep in mind.

The position of superintendent of schools in a modern city, if properly filled, is a full man's job, and calls for the best that is in a strong, capable, well-trained, and mature man. It is a position for which a young man ought to be willing to spend many years in hard and painstaking preparation. To be able to obtain a small superintendency at thirty, and a large and important position at forty, is about what a young man desiring to prepare for the work should be content to expect. It is a position for which years of careful preparation should be made, and, given equal native ability, the more careful has been the preparation the larger is likely to be the ultimate success.

Perhaps it may not be out of place, at this point, to turn from the problems of school administration proper and devote the remainder of this chapter to a description of the professional preparation which a young man, desiring to prepare for school superintendency work, should make today; the type of professional experience he should acquire; and the kind of personal qualities he ought to expect to bring to the work. The following may be taken to represent a minimum professional preparation if any large future success is to be expected.

*Education and training.*—In the first place a good college education may be considered as an absolute essential for future work, and at least a year of graduate study doing advanced work in the study of educational problems is practically a necessity now. Men of large grasp and ability should not stop here, but, after a few years of practical experience, should go on and obtain their Ph.D. degree.

The exact nature of the preliminary preparation is perhaps less important than that it should be good, and that it should challenge the best efforts of the student, awaken worthy ambitions, and stimulate the development of a high ideal of service. The preparation should be broad, and should early open up to the student permanent interests in fields of music and art, literature, history, science, and human welfare. These he needs for breadth and understanding. His future success as the head of a school system will to a rather large degree depend upon his intelligent understanding of the scientific and industrial world about him, his broad human sympathies, and his ability to meet people of culture and refinement on their own plane.

On top of this preliminary and general preparation the student needs to superimpose a technical preparation in educational theory, and a practical preparation in actual school practice. As early as the Sophomore year, certainly not later than the Junior, a brief introductory course on the place, purpose, and nature of public education and an introduction to educational theory can be taken with advantage. In the Junior and Senior years this should be followed with courses which give a good general introduction to the different fields of educational theory, history, administration, and practice. The graduate year should be devoted largely to advanced courses, and to the careful working out of some special problem in educational theory or practice. What is desired is a good introduction to the different fields and to the literature of education, and some practice in the methods by which educational problems are solved.

*The years of apprenticeship.*—All of this is merely preliminary, however. On top of this the candidate must now spend his apprenticeship and period of preliminary practice in his profession.[1] The five or six years which he now spends in teaching or in serving as a school principal ought to be years when he more than doubles the effectiveness of his general and professional collegiate preparation. If necessary, to avoid falling into a rut or getting a poor or

[1] This period of apprenticeship, which we may assume to be spent in a school principalship, involves the mastery of most of the details of school organization and administration as applied to a single school. This work will form the subject-matter of another book of this series, on *The Organization and Administration of a School.*

one-sided experience, he should move about during this period. If the salary does not seem large enough to cover both married life and study, he should for a time resolutely put marriage aside.

During these years he should save as much time as possible for careful reading and study along the lines of his future profession. Above all, during these years, he should gradually crystallize for himself a working educational philosophy, to guide him in his future work and to vitalize all of his later procedure. He must seize intelligent hold of the conception that education stands for the higher evolution of both the individual and the race, and must relegate to their proper place in the educational scheme all of the details of organization, administration, and instruction. Without such a guiding conception administrative work soon becomes dull and fruitless routine.

*Learning and working.*—He should now accumulate a good working library along the line of his major interests. He should keep closely in touch, too, with all advancements and important experiments in his field, and with what other workers elsewhere are doing. He should welcome new school tasks, making himself as professionally useful as possible, and taking a deep personal satisfaction in doing difficult things. He should give himself good practice in developing an ability to speak well and easily and to write clearly and convincingly. He should mix to some extent with practical men of affairs, from whom he can learn much that will be very useful to him later on. If the opportunity offers to join a discussion club, especially if composed of men older and more mature than himself, he should embrace the chance. He may even lead in the formation of such a club himself. He should read biography, and study and try to imitate the best traits of the successful men he has come to know, both in literature and in real life. Often some old doctor or banker or lawyer in the community will prove worthy of some personal study.

He should, during this period, keep himself free from all practices, entanglements, clubs, and especially local social obligations, which are wasteful of time and energy and have in them little that is of permanent profit. He must, during these years, willingly accept work and burdens which lead toward his desired goal, and resolutely reject those which do not. He should know and remem-

ber that the habit of hard and faithful work is one that is established but slowly, that it requires close watching of one's pole star to establish it, and that it is not fully established in most men until they are somewhere near thirty or thirty-five years of age. He should also know and remember that it takes about thirty-five or forty years of hard and faithful work to get ready to do something really large in life.

Rightly used, a half-dozen years after graduation can be spent, with great future advantage, in subordinate positions in the practical field.

*Dangerous pitfalls.*—It is during these years, however, that many a promising young man goes to pieces, so far as any large later usefulness in educational work is concerned. His college training gave him some feeling of mastery; he was trained there to do difficult things with some ease. When he goes to some smaller community he soon finds it unnecessary to work as he has done before. He also lacks the constant stimulus to sustained effort. Excepting a few lawyers and a few doctors, he is already one of the best educated men in the small city. His position, perhaps a principalship, gives him at once a special standing in the community. The people naturally look up to him as a man of more than ordinary training and importance. On the streets the men call him "professor," and pretty grade teachers and women with marriageable daughters seek him out and flatter his vanity. His daily work in superintending women and children, who usually accept his pronouncements as law, perhaps gives him an added importance in his own eyes. The presidency of a couple of societies or clubs adds further to his local importance.

He soon finds that, when he speaks to mothers' meetings and at church affairs, and even to fellow-teachers, he does not need to think carefully or to have anything of real value to say. He begins to feel his local importance; he begins to take life easily at least twenty years before he has earned the right; he ceases to read and study the problems of his work; he falls in with the local social life; and he gradually loses sight of the more distant goal he once set out to reach. Spoiled by too easy, too small, and too early successes, in a decade or less his possible usefulness for large work elsewhere has about reached the vanishing-point.

*Personal qualities necessary.*—While good training and experience are of fundamental importance to the man who wishes to prepare for educational leadership, certain personal qualities must be added to both if any large success is to be achieved. The man who would be a superintendent of schools—the educational leader of a city—must be clean, both in person and in mind; he must be temperate, both in speech and in act; he must be honest and square, and able to look men straight in the eye; and he must be possessed of a high sense of personal honor. He needs a good time-sense to enable him to save time and to transact business with dispatch, and a good sense of proportion to enable him to see things in their proper place and relationship. He must have the manners and courtesy of a gentleman, without being flabby or weak. He must not be affected by a desire to stand in the community limelight, or to talk unnecessarily about his own accomplishments. He must avoid oracularism, the solemnity and dignity of an owl, and the not uncommon tendency to lay down the law. A good sense of humor will be found a means of saving grace here, and will many times keep him from taking himself too seriously.

He must be alert and able to get things done. This demands a good understanding of common human nature, some personal force, and some genuine political skill. He must know when and how to speak, but especially when and how to keep silent. He must know when and how to take the public into his confidence, and when not to tell what he desires or intends to do. He must know how to accept success without vainglory, and defeat without being embittered. He must keep a level head, so as not to be carried away by some new community enthusiasm, by some clever political trick, or by the great discovery of some wild-eyed reformer. He must, by all means, avoid developing a "grouch" over the situation which confronts him, for a man with that attitude of mind never inspires confidence, and is always relatively ineffective.

*The qualities of leadership.*—He must learn to lead by reason of his larger knowledge and his contagious enthusiasm, rather than to drive by reason of his superior power. The powers and prerogatives which are guaranteed him by law he must know how to use wisely, and he should be able to win new powers and prerogatives from the board largely by reason of his ability to use them well. He must

constantly remember that he represents the whole community and not any part or fraction of it, and he must deal equal justice to all. As the representative of the whole community he will be wise not to ally himself at all closely with any faction or division or party in it.

He must, out of his larger knowledge, see clearly what are the attainable goals of the school system, and how best and how fast to attempt to reach them. From his larger knowledge, too, he must frequently reach up out of the routine of school supervision and executive duties into the higher levels of educational statesmanship. As a statesman, too, he must know how to take advantage of time and opportunity to carry his educational policy into effect.

By conferences, public and private, with leading citizens; by talks to parents at meetings at the schools; by taking the leaders among the teachers into his confidence; by dealing frankly and honestly with the press and the public; by his own written and spoken word, especially in his annual printed reports, and by inciting others to write and speak; and by tact and diplomacy in dealing with the members of his board, he must try to develop such a public opinion that the recommendations which he makes will go through without serious opposition, and be readily accepted by the people of the community. He must remember, though, that Rome was not built in a day; that it takes a long period of education to accomplish any really fundamental reform; and that it is usually not necessary to rush important matters to an immediate consideration.

It is now that the value of the long years of careful preparation becomes apparent. It is often said that only the man who is master of his calling, who overruns its mere outlines and knows more about the details of his work than anyone else with whom he must work, is safe. Out of his large knowledge of the details and processes of school work, gained in the years of apprenticeship in his calling, and out of the guiding educational philosophy which he has slowly built up for himself, he can see ends among the means and hope amid the discouragements, and be able to steer such a course amid the obstacles and trials and misunderstandings of city school control as will bring a well-thought-out educational policy slowly but surely into reality. To such a man larger and larger opportunities keep constantly opening up ahead.

# BOOKS RECEIVED

## GINN & CO., BOSTON

*Aesop's Fables.* Edited by J. H. STICKNEY. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 232. $0.40.

*Enunciation and Articulation.* By ELLA M. BOYCE. Cloth. Pp. 90. $0.30.

*Progressive Lessons in English for Foreigners, First Year.* By MARY JIMPERIEFF. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 132. $0.40.

*Young and Field Literary Readers: Book Five.* By ELLA FLAGG YOUNG and WALTER TAYLOR FIELD. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 384. $0.60.

*Selected Songs from Intermediate Song Reader.* By JAMES M. MCLAUGHLIN. Paper. Pp. 48. $0.30.

## MACMILLAN, NEW YORK

*Dictation Day by Day. A Modern Speller.* By KATE VAN WAGENEN. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 134. $0.24.

*School Arithmetic: Intermediate Book.* By FLORIAN CAJORI. Cloth. Pp. 299. $0.40.

*School Arithmetic: Grammar School Book.* By FLORIAN CAJORI. Cloth. Pp. 437.

## PUTNAM, NEW YORK

*Plane Geometry.* By A. M. HARDING and J. S. TURNER. Cloth. Pp. 51. $1.10.

*The Scissors Book.* By WILLIAM LUDLUM. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 98. $1.00 net.

## RAND McNALLY & CO., CHICAGO

*South America: A Geography Reader.* By ISAIAH BOWMAN. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 376. $0.75.

*Panama and Its "Bridge of Water."* By STELLA HUMPHREY NIDA. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 196. $0.50.

## BOBBS-MERRILL CO., INDIANAPOLIS

*The Brown Mouse.* By HERBERT QUICK. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 310. $1.25.

## D. C. HEATH & CO., BOSTON

*Counting and Table Drill Book.* By MARY A. WARD and BENJAMIN VEIT. Cloth. Pp. 112.

## HENRY HOLT & CO., NEW YORK

*The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers.* Edited by NATHANIEL EDWARD GRIFFIN. Cloth. Pp. 204.

HOUGHTON MIFFLIN CO., BOSTON

*Reading in the Primary Grades.* (Riverside Educational Monographs.) By FRANCES JENKINS. Cloth. Pp. 125. $0.60.

LITTLE, BROWN & CO., BOSTON

*Rivals for America.* By FRANCIS PARKMAN. Compiled by LOUISE S. HASBROUCK. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 233. $0.60.

CHARLES E. MERRILL CO., NEW YORK

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